

The Journal of Educational Sociology

A Magazine of Theory and Practice

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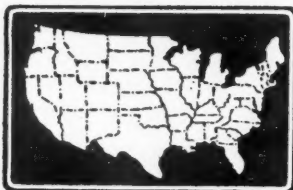
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EDITORIAL NOTES

The first and second numbers of THE JOURNAL OF EDUCATIONAL SOCIOLOGY display the active interest among educators and sociologists in the nature and field of the science. It seems uncertain in the minds of some whether educational sociology is now or ever can become a science. Those who hold this view seem to regard the subject as a philosophy of education and not as a science at all. Still others are of the opinion that educational sociology is not a science and never can become one because its purpose is to take certain principles from sociology and apply them to education. There are various other views represented, but these seem to be two extreme views that have perhaps most emphasis so far.

The editors of this journal take a totally different view. They established the journal to represent a different view; namely, that educational sociology is a science, although an infant in swaddling clothes, and that it has a distinct place and field of its own. It is as definitely involved in the interpretation of education as psychology, although the interpretation bears a different emphasis. Educational sociology is concerned moreover not merely with the aim or objective of education, but with the subject matter of the curriculum, the method, the organization and activities of the school, and the measurement of the results of the educational process. Our main problem, as already pointed out by Professor Zorbaugh, is to carry on research in each of these fields for purposes of basing educational practice upon sound scientific principles drawn from verified data. The only way we can give respecta-

bility to our science is to produce scientific results that will merit the respect of those who wish to base educational procedure upon scientific principles and not upon customs or institutional practices, however sacred these may have become through long historical practice and emphasis.

If this journal has a place it is to give emphasis to scientific investigation in education of a totally different sort from that which has held the center of activity during the past score of years. It is to turn the attention from the purely individual problems of learning and the technique of teaching the individual conventional subject matter, to the more important result of the adjustment of the individual to the social life, to the group in which he functions, and to create the greatest effectiveness possible in him in the situations of life. In other words, we have a problem of research into the social aims of education and the means by which those purposes may be realized. This is the task to which *THE JOURNAL OF EDUCATIONAL SOCIOLOGY* will devote its extremest vigor, energy, and enthusiasm.

SOCIAL BACKGROUNDS AND EDUCATION

FREDERIC M. THRASHER

New York University

THE modern American school as an institution may be regarded as a product of a complex civilization within which it has an assumed function—education—evolved in the past experience of that civilization. The schools of various peoples and epochs can hardly be understood apart from the larger cultural situations, both spatial and temporal, which have produced them and their underlying theories. Such institutions, for example, as the portico schools of Athens, the church and guild schools of the Middle Ages, the “court schools” of the seventeenth century, or the labor schools and *Rabfacs* of Soviet Russia get their meaning for us from the contexts in which they occur. This is well illustrated also in the interesting Danish folk high schools with their background of a vigorous rural and village civilization in which intelligent, independent farmers, pursuing scientific agriculture and wielding great political influence, carry on vast and efficient coöperative enterprises. Such a system could never exist in an “authoritative, magisterial state.”¹ To understand any educational institution, then, it becomes a matter of paramount importance to study its social backgrounds, historical and cultural.

The modern school, however, is by no means a unitary phenomenon, for it presents multiform structures, activities, and policies—as divergent as the diverse cultures and communities within which it has developed and of which it is an expression. Many significant differences exist between a Brahmin and a Chinese school, a European and an American university, a Prussian *Realgymnasium* in 1914 and a similar institution in 1927, a French Canadian parochial school in New England and a midwestern rural American community high school, the Wirt system of Gary, Indiana, and the public schools of Indianapolis. These variations are due probably not to hereditary differences in the people concerned, but to variations in social experience. Someone has said that everything and nothing is true of the

¹ See Joseph K. Hart's recent *Light from the North* and Holger Begtrup, Hans Lund, and Peter Manniche, *The Folk High-Schools of Denmark and the Development of a Farming Community*.

American public school. This is merely another way of saying that cultural, sectional, and local differences find expression and are reflected in typical institutions. To understand any individual school or system in a local area, therefore, it becomes necessary to investigate carefully the social backgrounds within which it functions. This is one important task of research in educational sociology. Comparative studies of this sort should yield rich returns in suggestions for the interpretation of educational structures and functions.

Comparison of communities, for example, reveals great differences among them in institutions and in general spirit and morale. Although these divergencies have never been adequately measured and seem subtle and elusive, careful observers recognize them as partial explanations of variations in community problems. Differences among communities may be sensed, for example, in contacts with clubs organized on the same plan for the same general purposes and bearing the same name in various localities. The differences in alertness, efficiency, solidarity, public spirit, and so on, in such groups are often marked and they often bear a direct relationship to more general differences among the communities in which they are located. Towns and cities are sometimes characterized as progressive or conservative, fast or slow, thriving or dead, "boom" or dying, Eastern or Western, "lid on" or "wide open," young or old, public spirited or selfish, corrupt or clean, settled or in transition, and so on. That cities have their own distinct personalities has long been recognized by the observers of urban communities. William Healy has suggested the importance of these and similar variations in accounting for the vast differences in delinquency and its treatment in Boston and Chicago.² Such divergencies are equally important in relation to the understanding of the school; the schools as institutions reflect the spirit of the community and their functions and activities are carried on in one way or another as these community backgrounds, often elusive, vary from place to place.

Differences in schools are marked, moreover, even in local communities within a larger urban ecology. Forces are at work in the American city to distribute the population into natural local areas characterized by widely divergent races, nationalities, religions,

² See William Healy and Augusta F. Bronner, *Delinquents and Criminals*, p. 11 and pp. 183-198. It is quite likely that the community factors in the causation of juvenile delinquency would have been largely overlooked if the comparative study, in this case between Boston and Chicago, had not been made.

economic levels, and so on. Furthermore, differences in mobility and density of population, social distance, local self-consciousness, political organization and efficiency, educational levels, and other factors are bound to be reflected in and to determine to a certain extent the nature and needs of educational institutions within these areas.

In Chicago, for example, a school in a congested river ward of "Little Italy" presents very different aspects from one in an exclusive Hyde Park residential district. The schools in each local area must be understood and their tasks considered with reference to the populations which they serve and the special characteristics of their particular districts. In Chicago such areas as the Ghetto, the Black Belt, the "dormitory suburb," the Near North Side, "Little Greece," "Little Hell," and "Back-of-the-Yards," to mention only a few, have, within certain limits, of course, their own types of educational institutions. Many questions with regard to differences in local situations can be answered only by careful investigation of the relation of social backgrounds to the schools. Should a Greek national school in an American city, for example, be regarded as a menace to American traditions? A study of social backgrounds reveals that such an institution will probably facilitate social control through conserving family discipline and morale in the old-world group and preventing premature and superficial Americanization. What relation should such national institutions as the Bohemian sokols have to the public schools? And so on.

The general principle involved in this method of approach is that, in order adequately to comprehend the meaning and functions of a social institution, it is essential to make a scientific study of the social setting or context within which such an institution has developed and with which it must have intimate social linkages. Sociologists have emphasized the importance of this approach for many years, but its general application in the study of social problems has been tardy. That the same principle applies equally to the study of *individuals* and *groups* within their larger social settings is quite obvious upon reflection, but it has been very slow to be recognized in our practical treatment of persons and groups where social direction and control have been attempted. The conscious and critical *study* of the delinquent as a person (an individual in his social context), for example, is rela-

tively a new technique in clinical procedure;³ whereas the *treatment* of the delinquent as a person has hardly begun to filter into our vast and expensive systems of penology.⁴

This principle has been suggested also by some aspects of the Gestalt psychology developed by Koffka and Köhler.⁵ While the Gestalt concepts as applied by sociology are not new, this notion coming from a related field and based largely upon experimentation with apes and men, lends them a certain freshness. The Gestalt psychology is in part a theory of contextual relativity: Any unit of experience gets its significance and its explanation from the fact that it is an element in a larger organization of units with which it has definite relations which give it meaning. Such an organization of units is called a form, a "configuration," a Gestalt. Sociologically speaking, every community is a Gestalt for its local areas; every society is a Gestalt for its subordinate groups; and every group is a Gestalt for its individual members.

The application of this notion to the personality of the school child is fruitful in suggestions for research and ultimately for a more effective educational procedure in the light of his social backgrounds. The school child, like any other human being who is a member of groups and a part of a larger community life, is socially and psychically a function of a larger consensus (Gestalt) which approaches an organic whole in its nature, but which is composed of interdependent elements embodied in interacting persons and groups. A careful study of the elements in this consensus which constitutes the social context of the school youth is essential to an intelligent comprehension of his character and personality. The meanings of the child's attitudes and acts are clear only in view of the larger frameworks (Gestalts) within which they occur; but the meaning of the whole child appears only with reference to his total situation (Gestalt).

This may be illustrated for the school child by reference to certain vital groups of which he is a member, such as nationality, religious sect, family, and gang. Many elements in the play of children can be understood only by reference to their immigrant groupings; they tend to follow the social patterns in play which have prestige in their own cultural backgrounds. Negative attitudes with reference to school

³ See E. W. Burgess, "The Study of the Delinquent as a Person," *American Journal of Sociology*, XXVIII (1923), pp. 657-81.

⁴ See Frederic M. Thrasher, *The Gang*, pp. 498-530.

⁵ See Kurt Koffka, *The Growth of the Mind* and Wolfgang Köhler, *The Mentality of Apes*. For a briefer statement see *The Psychologies of 1925*, Powell Lectures in Psychological Theory, Clark University, articles by Koffka and Köhler.

health programs are explainable in some cases as the result of religious attitudes on the part of the child. Juvenile feuds often carried into the school may be the result of family feuds and these may again be colored by nationality backgrounds, as in the juvenile vendettas among Italian schoolboys.

The gang provides one of the best illustrations of the difficulty of understanding the school boy without reference to his social backgrounds. If he is a gang boy, his status in the gang is usually of much greater importance to him than is his status in school. For this reason his behavior in critical situations is much more likely to follow the patterns set by the gang than it is to meet the requirements of the school. Ridiculous delinquency,⁶ otherwise totally incomprehensible, becomes readily explainable in the light of the prestige which a delinquent record gets the boy in the gang. The boy's conception of his rôle as a gang leader, a gang "funny man" or daredevil, a gang member, or even an aspirant to gang membership often results in school behavior which is difficult to understand in the light of expected motivation.

The visiting teacher movement undoubtedly owes much of its vitality to insights made possible for the visitor through the intimate study of social backgrounds.⁷ He is one of the few members of the school personnel who is in a position to see the whole child in his total situation (Gestalt). Thus, the meaning of the child in its larger social context may become clear to him as a scientific observer (assuming that he is in possession of an adequate technique for such a study) and the problems of the child may be dealt with intelligently with reference to the total situation. The visiting teacher, in other words, may not only study the child as a person (an individual in all his social relationships), but may also enable the school to deal with him as such.

Among the social backgrounds of the school and of the school child which may be studied with profit for a better understanding both of the institution and of the person are those of race, nationality, social class, geographical section, metropolitan area, city, local community, neighborhood, city block, occupational group, church and sect, political

⁶ Adolescent secret societies also often impose upon their members tests, tasks, obligations, and codes of conduct which make their behavior difficult to understand without an insight into these hidden mechanisms.

⁷ See J. J. Oppenheimer, *The Visiting Teacher Movement*, M. B. Ellis, *The Visiting Teacher in Rochester*, and Mary B. Sayles and Howard W. Nudd, *The Problem Child in School*.

group, club, secret society, and such nonconventional groups as the play group, the gang, the clique, and the set.

A scientific study of the social backgrounds of the school child may begin with an investigation of the backgrounds of individual children. Techniques for such studies have been partially worked out in the behavior clinics and may be examined in their reports.⁸ To gain a complete picture of the child as a person, it would be necessary first to get a life history exhibiting the development of social relationships. Social contacts and influences have molded him all along the way; they must be thoroughly investigated and fully weighed in estimating his present traits and trends.

Another important part of the task would be to make a complete study of all the child's present social relationships, particularly with reference to his membership in various groups which condition and determine his behavior. Such questions as the following may well be considered:

Of what groups is the child now a member?

May these groups be classified as: nominal or vital, formal or informal, primary or secondary, intimate or conventional, etc.?

Of the vital groups, which ones are more important in determining his behavior patterns and setting his standards of conduct?

Does the child tend to be a "solitary type" or a social "misfit?" Does his chief interest lie in the direction of chums or pals? Is he a member of many groups, a "joiner?" Does he tend to stick to one or two groups which provide the most effective channels for the development and expression of his interests?

What are the interests and activities of the school child's most vital and intimate groups? What behavior patterns and standards of conduct do they set? What

⁸ See William Healy and Augusta F. Bronner, *Judge Baker Foundation Case Studies*, Series 1, Nos. 1-20; *Three Problem Children* (Narratives from a Child Guidance Clinic); etc. *The Gang: A Study of 1,313 Gangs in Chicago* by Frederic M. Thrasher is an example of an investigation of one type of social background in a great city, but without special reference to the school for the most part. It seems obvious enough that the mere study of social backgrounds alone would be inadequate; it is always necessary, of course, to look for their interrelations with the school and its problems.

mechanisms of special social control function within them?

And so on.⁹

An investigation of the social backgrounds of the educational institution within which the child is incorporated is also essential to supplement the individual studies and to fill out the larger framework (Gestalt) within which the child functions and gets his meaning. Such a study may attempt to answer among others the following questions with reference to the total school situation:

What is the social background of the school in question?

What are the general traits of the population served by the school? To what extent is it homogeneous with regard to race, nationality, social class, educational level, etc.? What diversities does it present? How are they related to school problems?

What are the institutions and groups in the school district? How do they interact with the school? What are the social patterns peculiar to them? How do they influence the attitudes and behaviour of the school child?

What is the status of community organization in the school area? What is its structure? What functions does it perform? At what points has it broken down or become demoralized? What is the spirit of the community and how is this reflected in school problems? What groups in the community interact with the school and what effects do they have upon it?

How may the groups and institutions of the community be classified from the standpoint of reinforcing the work of the school? of thwarting it? of playing a neutral part?

What are the larger social contexts of the school community: such as nationality, rural section, city, metropolitan area, state, nation as a whole, etc.? How do they affect the local community as it touches the school?

How can the school best serve the interests discovered in the community? What use can be made of social heritages represented in these interests?

⁹ It should be emphasized at this point that mere questionnaires are always dangerous to the spontaneity and vitality of any study. The following of any set of questions is quite likely to force the materials into preconceived molds and permit the most significant points to fall through the formal framework. Mere formal information is usually of slight value in itself.

What readaptations can be made in the school program in view of specific social backgrounds?

And so on.

Very valuable in this connection would be a research project which would undertake series of local community studies in given areas, rural and urban, with especial reference to education. Social life histories of the various communities would be prepared, together with intensive studies of local traditions, institutions, and their functioning. This type of study has been carried farthest perhaps in Chicago,¹⁰ where the boundaries of the local communities and their subordinate areas have been ascertained and much of their social history recorded. In this way the mosaic picture of the city is gradually being made out so that eventually its citizens may see it as a whole. The values of this method of investigation for education are great because of the possibility of eventually ascertaining vital social linkages between school and community and school and other social institutions and groups.

The meaning of education, furthermore, will tend to become clearer and more significant both to specialists and to the general public as its place in the larger ecological and cultural Gestalt is made plain and vivid. The hoped-for ultimate ability of the citizen to visualize the city or other area as a whole and see the real functions of its subordinate activities in their relation to the whole will represent a real advance in social intelligence.

¹⁰ Largely under the auspices of the Local Community Research Committee of the University of Chicago.

WHAT IS EDUCATIONAL SOCIOLOGY?

A Comment

DAVID SNEDDEN

Teacher's College

PROFESSOR ELLWOOD seems to the present writer to have rendered a distinct service both to sociology and to education by making clear the great magnitude of the sum total of the educative processes in societies, since all the processes of the *transmission* of culture are essentially *educative*. It is true, as he indicates, that each new generation must *learn* from the lips or works of the preceding generation whatever it needs of humanity's accumulation of culture to date.

Not all of this *learning* requires conscious *teaching*, of course. Nor does all of the teaching involve *education* if the last term were so defined as to imply purposiveness. But just because *purposed* education, through schools or through other agencies, is expensive of energy and time, it is highly important that its purposes or principal objectives shall be derived, first through a wide ranging survey of all the specific items of the social inheritance which at any time should be passed on to successive generations, and second, through making allowance for the extent and character of such transmissions as are adequately transmissible either through natural learning not requiring conscious teaching (much of which Tarde had in mind in his "Imitation") or through natural teaching not requiring systematized education.

It is to be hoped that educators no less than sociologists will presently address themselves to agreeing upon a working definition of education. When Professor Ellwood says that "education of some sort has always been necessary to the existence of human groups" he is doubtless right, but he leaves us uncertain as to whether he thinks that "the educative process" is as broad as "the learning process" which he is clearly right in evaluating "in its social aspects as the central problem of educational sociology."

To the present writer it appears that both educators and social scientists completely under-value in both primitive and modern societies the rôles, first of naïve learning which requires no conscious teaching, and of naïve teaching which involves no conscious education. At bot-

tom, of course, there is doubtless *buried, submerged, traditional*, and perhaps *instinctive* purposiveness of many kinds and degrees in the curiosities, imitativenesses, suggestibilities, dominations, and the like which provide fertile soils for both naïve learning and for naïve teaching. But are we not spoiling our good historic term "education" in stretching it over so vast a field?

In view of the importance and acceptability of Professor Ellwood's major finding one may seem to cavil in taking exception to two of his minor findings. But what is discussion without some disagreement?

First, I wonder what has in reality been the "individualistic view of education" from which it is hoped we shall escape? I cannot find evidence of its existence at any time in the past. Has not all *conscious* education—in family, under churches, by guilds, through states—always been *essentially* social? Have commercialized, endowed or state-supported primary schools or colleges ever been anything else but *social-institutions* in avowed and actual purpose? True, the social groups, classes, or associations for which they prepared their plastic charges may have been too limited—one sect, one guild, one nation; but certainly that mistake was not one of *individualism*.

Secondly, does not Professor Ellwood do an injustice to the possibilities of applied social science when he expresses the hope that development of educational sociology will make clear that the chief application of sociology is *not* in social work—but in education?

Now it is true that social work, "in the ordinary sense of that phrase" connotes, perhaps, too much of purely pathological studies. But surely that is only of the early stages. Is it not certain that the findings of sociology and its sister (or daughter) social sciences will be no less extensively employed in the coöperative economic productions, the political controls, the jurisprudence, and the progenitiveness of the future than in the educations?

SOME NEGLECTED FACTORS IN CURRICULUM BUILDING AT THE JUNIOR COLLEGE LEVEL

J. O. CREAGER

Professor of College Education New York University

IT is the purpose of this paper to show the influence of certain factors—geographical, social and economic in nature—upon the construction of a program of studies for the training of teachers in any given state. To make the problem definite and concrete, the Junior-College division of the College of Education of the University of Arizona has been chosen because conditions in the state are familiar to the writer. The curricula to be proposed in this program are designed for the preparation of all teachers of the state whom it is the University's function to educate. These curricula are to be established in terms of activities and experiences, provided by the state through the University for the training of those students who offer themselves and can qualify. While the primary purpose is professional, a secondary purpose, quite in harmony with the first, is the further general education of these young men and women for participation in the civic life of the state and the nation. This implies the problem of so adjusting the demands of professional and general education upon the junior college level that each student will receive the greatest possible opportunity for self-realization, consistent with preparation for effective service in his chosen profession and in civil life.¹

Arizona is a state of widely varied needs, conditions and interests. Before we can determine all the conditions involved in the solution of the problem just stated it will be necessary to make a survey of these conditions and needs, in order to determine what additional requirements they place upon the problem further than those obtaining in the training of students in similar colleges in other states.

How Geographical Features Modify the Problem

Geographically, the state of Arizona is probably the roughest, in its surface area, among the states in the Union, varying from 250 feet

¹ See Principle I, *Curriculum Adjustment in the Secondary School*, Cox.

above sea-level to 13,000 feet. No large part of the state is free from mountains, though the general topography of the state may be divided into two large contrasting areas—the northern plateau where altitudes range from 4000 to 7000, and the southern portion ranging from 500 feet to 2500 feet. The lands of Arizona, from the view-point of their uses may be roughly classified into (1) *Mountains*, where lumbering and mining prevail, (2) *Plateaus*, which are given up to stockraising, with some farming, (3) *Deserts*, where, under sub-irrigation, some farming and considerable stock-raising goes on, and (4) *Irrigated Areas*, which produce a wide variety of crops.

These four types modify the teacher-training problem, in the following ways: The mountainous portions contain and always will contain a considerable percentage of one-teacher rural schools. The 1917 survey of Arizona shows over 300 schools, though some of these latter are not located in the mountains and may later yield to the consolidation movement.² This type of school interests the University in two respects. First, such schools are under the supervision of county superintendents, now elected at political elections. The University's function is to train a new order of county-superintendent, who can give such schools expert leadership, and a supply of special supervisors to assist such superintendents. Secondly, the rough and frontier-like conditions that prevail in most of these schools require men, rather than women as teachers. May not the University develop a program, whereby young men, looking for a type of experience to serve as apprentice training for small-town principalships may find in such schools experience more pertinent to their needs than high school training? A third type of work in which the University may be of service is represented by certain research studies which the college of education has recently undertaken in the field of rural education and for which work students must be trained. An example of what is meant here may be found in the masters' theses of recent students, at the University notably the study entitled, "The Status of the Rural Teacher of Pima County" by Meredith L. Laughlin and another entitled "The Status of the Teacherage of the Rural Schools in Pima, Santa Cruz and Maricopa Counties" by Nelle Leona Meyer. Both of these were reviewed by the U. S. Bureau of Education in an article appearing in *School Life*, December, 1924.

² See U. S. Bulletin No. 44, 1917.

Topography types 2 and 3, (viz plateau and desert areas) furnish demand for considerable numbers of one and two teacher rural schools as well as for teachers and principals of small town or village schools. The training of such principals, whose job is partly administrative, partly supervisory, belongs in part to the University which has recently been granted by the legislature the right to offer courses in "theory and practice of elementary education."

The irrigation projects in the state now comprise 467,565 acres, broken up into 6605 farms, representing an invested capital of \$33,500,000. Long staple cotton and citrus fruits are the principal products, though the canteloupe industry is prominent. This region, together with the mining industry furnishes Arizona its two largest cities, neither of which exceeds 35,000 population, and its five largest towns which vary from 5000 to 12,000 in population. The type of work required of superintendents and principals of schools in these cities and towns constitutes a factor in devising our program of studies. Courses of study in school administration have far too often had the big cities in mind and have thus tried to make all the little fishes talk like whales.

How Industrial Features Are Concerned in the Problem

Mining is the most important industry, nearly 25% of the adult male population being engaged in mining. The value of the output of copper alone is far in excess of the output of any other industry. *Manufacturing* ranks second, the smelting and refining of copper constituting 82% of the total manufactured products in 1910. *Railroad construction* and *repair shops* come next. *Agriculture* ranks third as an industry but less than 2% of the entire area of the state is in farms. Of these over 50% of the land is irrigated. Most of the farm population is made up of owners. Cattle-raising will doubtless always remain an important pursuit because much of the state will not yield to irrigation and farming. The irrigation projects develop rapidly and land values have gone as high as \$1000 per acre. Much of these areas grows so rapidly in population as to present most difficult educational problems. These industrial conditions concern the teacher-training policy and program, (1) in the *personal traits and attitudes* desirable to have developed in teachers for these different communities, (2) in the demand for certain kinds of vocational training offered in mining and agricultural communities for which teachers are needed.

(1) *Personal traits and attitudes:* While it is realized that all teachers should possess desirable social traits and community attitudes it is an obligation resting upon colleges of education to do something toward adjusting the personal character of their product to the communities served. This gives rise to a new type of service, called "Personnel Service" which is rapidly coming into vogue in industry and to which education is beginning to give attention. The object of such service is to make such adjustments in working conditions as will bring the greatest happiness to the worker on the job. The teaching profession has long needed to attack this problem in a more scientific way. Research is needed on the part of universities to learn, first, what living conditions obtain in actual teaching positions in the state; and secondly, what instruction is desirable in helping teachers to meet these conditions. The organization of local community forces is also a part of the problem.

(2) *Types of vocational teachers needed:* The present vocational program in public schools in mining communities contemplates the organization of Smith-Hughes courses in electrical wiring, and other courses for the training of boys for skilled positions in the mines. Curricula for girls in home-making and for boys in agriculture are being offered in a number of high schools. The university at present offers curricula for the training of vocational teachers in these two fields. There is, however, much remaining to be done in the development of a better program of cooperation between principals and superintendents of schools and the university in the attempt both to encourage vocational education in the state and to engage in a cooperative study of a teacher-training program in which both *should* be equally interested.

Character of the School Population

This part of our discussion deals with the following considerations:

(1) Who are the potential College of Education students of Junior College years? a. From the standpoint of their percentage of the total population of the state i.e. to what extent are they a numerically selected group? b. What is their social or economic status? c. What is their intelligence? and d. What are their vocational aspirations? i.e. what fields of the educational service have they chosen as their objectives? (2) To what extent, if any, should the College of Education set up administrative standards that will tend to select for the teaching

service still more carefully than students are already selected by general University entrance requirements.

1-a. *What percentage of the total population do these students constitute?* According to the 1920 census there were 761,766 teachers in the United States, or one teacher to every 139 persons. Comparing this figure with those for other professions we find that there is one engineer for every 777 persons and one lawyer for every 855 persons, one physician for every 481 and one clergyman for every 831 persons.³ If other factors were equal (which they never are) we might reach the conclusion that teaching gets a less highly selected group than any of the other professions named. The total population of Arizona for 1925 was 407,702 or 3.5 persons per square mile. Dividing this by 139 we get approximately 2900 teachers for Arizona which is probably somewhat in excess of the actual number. At any rate the teachers constitute by far the largest professional group and the number to be recruited each year is likewise the largest. Careful studies in tenure and turn-over need to be made and may well constitute problems for graduate students.

1-b. *What is the social and economic status of teachers?* The typical teacher-in-training reported in the Missouri Survey (based upon facts about women students only) is a little more than twenty years of age, and has completed eleven years of elementary and high school work.⁴ She is native born and the chances are 50 out of 100 that her parents are native born Americans. Both parents were living when she entered upon training and the family income was approximately \$1250, which went to the support of her in school and her five brothers and sisters at home. Her home was in the rural district or in a small town and her education was obtained in a 3-6 teacher school. We have no similar data as to teachers-in training in Arizona which indicates the need of research in the field.

1-c. *Intelligence:* Much has been written upon the quality of intelligence which enters the teaching profession. Until we know more about types of intelligence and their relation to teaching, until we have formulated reliable tests for other than abstract intelligence, most generalizations seem unsatisfactory, if not unwise.⁵ Most figures that have appeared have ignored the larger percentage of the total population going into teaching as compared with those entering other professions.

³ See Bagley and Keith's *Introduction to Education*, pp. 233-7.

⁴ Bulletin 14, Carnegie Foundation for the Advancement of Teaching.

⁵ See Cox, *Curriculum Adjustment in the Secondary School*, pp. 54-55.

However, these precautions being taken, certain comparative data may be mentioned. Book's Indiana study shows that of 2306 boys tested those expressing a preference for teaching tested slightly above the level of the State median. The same was true of the girls. Renshaw in a study of 1199 students (Freshmen and Sophomores) in the Western State Normal College at Kalamazoo found the Alpha median for this group to be 135.5. Thurstone's study of 1575 students entering their first year of training in Pennsylvania and Virginia shows them not to be a selected group, but one essentially on the same level of ability as high school seniors. Our own tests of Freshmen in the University of Arizona show that College of Education Freshmen average slightly below the arts and engineering freshmen and a little higher than freshmen who choose agriculture.

What should be done about the matter? Some city training schools are accepting only the highest half or two-thirds of the classes graduating from the high schools, the ranking being based upon the record in achievement of the student during his entire four years. This emphasizes not merely abstract intelligence, but certain habits and ideals such as fidelity, continued effort, thoroughness, etc. To base selection upon intelligence tests alone does not seem to meet with the general approval of those administering teacher-training institutions. If high achievement is required such a requirement will carry with it a good level of intelligence and other desirable qualities not caught in the intelligence-testers crucible. Although Knight's findings showed no significant correlation between mental ability and teaching success, Bliss of Ohio offers considerable data in rebuttal and argues that we shall surely go wrong if we minimize mental ability.*

Certainly something should be done to create a greater public as well as a greater professional respect for teaching as a calling. If some sort of administrative device for a better selection of raw material can be worked out it would probably serve to add esteem to a profession, quite deserving it, but getting too little. It is of course a prudential question as to whether State Universities could set a higher entrance standard for Colleges of Education than for other colleges. The internal storm that such a regulation would arouse would greatly exceed any public criticism from the outside.

* See "Who Shall Teach," Special Study Series No. 4, 1923, Ohio State Department of Education.

The foregoing are some of the social and economic factors involved in the determination of administrative and curricular policy in the training of teachers in a given state. The writer believes that such considerations precede and are basic to any intelligent formulation of objectives, and that in our recent studies of objectives in the field of education we have too often neglected such factors. A subsequent article proposes to deal specifically with the program of studies as modified by the consideration of these factors.

THE URGENT NEED FOR SOCIOLOGY IN EDUCATIONAL MEASUREMENTS

STEPHEN G. RICH

THE word "urgent" has been used in the title of this article because the problem involved here is one that, in the writer's opinion, should be solved or at least worked to a *modus vivendi* at an early date, if either sociology or measurements are to render the highest possible service to education.

The fifteen years 1912-1927 have seen the rise, the fad, the reaction, and the solid establishment of educational measurements as a part of the equipment used by professionally trained educators. The day of finding out whether a given portion of achievement can be tested objectively is past; likewise the day of testing for the sake of giving tests. Despite the persistence of examinations without norms, whether "old style" or "new style," despite the unwillingness of official examining agencies of all sorts to use actual educational measurements for promotion of pupils, etc., the use of standardized tests of achievement and of tests for general ability ("intelligence tests") as tools for solving actual working problems in conducting schools, has become an accepted practice among the greater part of the more wideawake educators.

The same fifteen years have seen the rise of educational sociology as a definite field of knowledge and method of thinking within education. It is ten years since the famous "Seven Cardinal Aims" formulated in the first conveniently usable form the sociological point of view on educational purposes. Since that time, increasingly adequate statements of the sociological basis, working, and effects of education have become developed. Sociological criticism of existing courses, curricula, etc., has become so much an accepted fact that even the most reactionary committees that nominally revise curricula but actually reword the old ones give at least perfunctory lip service to some statement of educational purposes in terms of educational sociology. But it must be admitted that, by and large, educational sociology has not yet progressed to the point of being an effective determinant of educational procedure. It is doubtless in order to aid in producing such

an effective use of educational sociology that this journal has been established.

Up to the present time, the educational measurement workers and the educational sociologists would appear to have kept rather strictly aloof. This is not to be wondered at. Testing is, essentially, a determination of what exists, rather than of what ought to exist. Hence, since the dominant trend in school work hitherto has been and even now is the imparting of information and the training of skills, testing has been predominantly in terms of information and to a lesser degree in terms of skills. Furthermore, the personnel of the test-making and test-using educators has been most largely recruited from those whose primary interest and viewpoint is psychological rather than sociological. The interest of the test makers has been rather in what the pupil has acquired than in the values of these acquisitions; rather in determining the actual progress of typical, subnormal, or supernormal groups than in discovering whether this progress in achievement was worth having at all.

In contrast to this point of view, educational sociology has been at bottom a critical rather than a merely investigative activity. This must not be taken as even implying that investigation of fact forms a minor part of educational sociology. But the sociologists have naturally been concerned to know what social functions have been served by the various educative activities operating under different social conditions. They have, therefore, of necessity become critical as to the validity and usefulness of various educational procedures.

The development of educational measurements in arithmetic will serve as a type case, sufficiently familiar to most workers in education to be readily appreciated, and showing the typical results of the divorcement of measurements from sociology. Curtis's Series B tests, the first tests on the mechanics of arithmetic sufficiently satisfactory to find very wide use, have justly been criticized as being more or less artificial from a social standpoint. They may, however, be further and equally justly criticized as being, even at this late date, sociologically without norms. It will be obvious to educational sociologists that at least two additions to the tables of norms are needed: two additions which there has been time to develop. One of these is a set of norms for typical adults who are successfully carrying on various types of vocational activity, such as mechanical trades, storekeeping, law, etc. The other is a set of norms for the degree of skill necessary

to be reached in school in order that subsequent forgetting shall not reduce the skills below the levels needed in these vocations. Thus we might find that a successful pharmacist typically attains a skill in addition represented by a speed of 10.7 and an accuracy of 77 and that for securing this attainment as an adult, a speed of 14.2 and an accuracy of 82 need be secured in school.

Woody's tests, again, in the effort to include problems so difficult that no grade-school pupils would solve them correctly, include certain bizarre problems that are found in actual life only in the technical calculations of specialized vocations. Series A Subtraction, No. 32, which is needed only in a bank, is a case in point. Woody's norms are open to the same criticism as are those of Courtis.

In the attempt to analyze out arithmetical ability into its components, problem solving has been separated from the mechanics. Such an analysis and such a differentiation of tests is, of course, legitimate. But the educational sociologist, taking account of social needs, must insist that we use our mechanics of arithmetic in the solution of problems occurring in actual life. It is therefore desirable that the measurement of the mechanical abilities be made, not isolated and as abstract exercises, but in such situations as to allow these abilities the type of functioning that they actually fall into under ordinary social influences.

The writer would, therefore, indicate that if arithmetic tests are to be sociologically satisfactory, they should be made to include the following features:

- (1) The mechanical processes (miscalled "fundamentals" by test makers untrained in sociology) should be tested within the framework of life-situation problems.
- (2) Problem solving and mechanics should be scored separately from such a test.
- (3) The norms should include the two forms of goal: the adult ability necessary for social effectiveness, and the ability needed to be produced in school for the retention afterwards of this necessary adult ability.

If we undertake to make a set of tests that will conform to these criteria, the task is considerably greater than that involved in making any arithmetic tests now in general use. The test material requires several more siftings and rearrangements than have been customary; and a far larger proportion than most test makers are willing to dis-

card will have to be eliminated. The norm-making process becomes considerably more lengthy and troublesome than that hitherto in use. There are at least two siftings necessary in addition to those generally in use. First is a sifting for sociological value: problems which may be perfectly valid, considered psychologically and statistically, will have to be discarded because they do not represent social situations or are artificial. Second, a sifting for problems which show a definite relation to the postschool development of the abilities. As between two problems of equal statistical scale value, involving addition, only, the one that is conquered in Grade 5 and always solved thereafter, will be of less usefulness in our test than one which is conquered in Grade 5, solved at the school-leaving level, but no longer solved by half the adult skilled mechanics.

Testing in arithmetic also shows lack of sociological influence in the way that fractions, both decimal and common, are dealt with. Monroe's research tests, for example, give a whole section to division of decimals by decimals. The extent to which any testing at all on this particular set of abilities is warranted, is a matter for sociological determination. This same set of tests uses, on common fractions, certain pairs to be added, subtracted, multiplied, or divided, which are rarely met with in the social use of arithmetic.

Within the space available for an article such as this it is, of course, not practicable to go into all the details of the sociological shortcomings of arithmetic tests; but it is hoped that both the shortcomings and an approach to a remedy have been made clear.

If we turn to fields other than arithmetic, we shall find substantially the same types of defects in practically all our existing tests; and we shall be able to apply substantially the same methods of remedy. One fact, however, differentiates a number of subjects from arithmetic. Tests in geography, history, high-school sciences and the like, suffer from the defect of being for the most part tests of information and only of information. Fortunately, most of them are avowedly informational only; unfortunately, this avowal is not given due attention by the greater part of the users of these tests. It is not relevant to do more than mention the occasional lapses from correctness in the information which is supposed to form the correct answer, found now and then in even excellent tests; nor, again, to more than note the occasional case in which an uninformed teacher

questions the scoring because she does not have the correct information.¹ These are the inevitable modicum of error in all human work.

But the limitation to information means that we are testing only the smallest and least valuable social results of the instruction in question. In history, for example, the results in terms of civic attitudes and understanding of current problems, far more valuable, are not measured at all. It may be in point, for the purpose of illustrating an attempt to measure such outcomes, to cite one question from a draft test in ancient history, which the writer has seen, but which appears not yet to have been developed for use. This is a multiple-response test, with choice among four answers:

The League of Delos, in its later years, was like what modern political grouping of states?

(Answers:) The United States

The League of Nations

The German Empire before 1914

The Austrian Empire

The correct answer is "the German Empire before 1914," for the League of Delos was then really an Athenian empire. The response here, though it might be the result of a memorized indoctrination, is likely in most cases to be a genuine use of historical judgment.

From this point it will be desirable to indicate what may be done in the way of applying educational sociology to testing, rather than to continue the sociological criticism of existing tests. The test makers are likely, and with some justice, to insist right here that they are bound to test within the limits of the present curriculum. Therefore, say they, we cannot choose the sociologically valid items and aspects; we must test on what is taught and on the emphases that are given.

To this the educational sociologists may properly reply that there is no need to go outside the existing curriculum and its content. Even that most formalized of all high-school subjects, physics, has, within the existing curriculum as laid down by college entrance requirements, sufficient socially justifiable material to enable quite workable tests to be made. The testers may stick to their existent curricula, but they

¹ Hahn and Lackey, in their geography test, allow an answer that Canada "belongs to England" though it is a coördinate kingdom under George V. The writer has had one answer on his chemistry tests—as to ammonia from lime and a protein showing presence of nitrogen—questioned by several teachers.

can act in the light of sociology by choosing as test items such questions as deal with material sociologically justifiable. The writer may, without egotism, here call attention to his own chemistry tests as an attempt to do this very thing.² Developed in 1922 and 1923, all test material was sifted, in addition to the usual statistical placing and eliminations, once more. Only those items, which, according to what criteria were then available to the writer, served directly or indirectly towards accomplishing some one or more of the "Seven Cardinal Aims," were admitted to the definitive and published tests. Dvorak has done a similar piece of work in his general science tests.³

Such tests, choosing material sociologically justifiable, do not of course give a representative sampling of the whole content as now taught. They do more than this: They give a representative sampling of the whole content of sociological usefulness now taught. Knowing as we do that administrators are relying in increasing numbers upon test results for diagnosis, we are justified in saying that the use of such tests enables the long delayed and badly needed application of educational sociology to actual school needs to begin. In the same way, the sociological guiding of the emphasis is begun by the use of results from such tests.

Another development, and one that should be carried much further, is to test in terms of purposes instead of in terms of subjects. In fact, this is the only type of testing of achievement that can be adequately tested where a full-fledged project curriculum is in use; for the traditional subject divisions simply do not fit. The Payne health scale is perhaps the first attempt to measure the extent to which an educational objective is achieved. Chassell and Upson's citizenship scales are another beginning in this same direction. The just criticism that these scales are too subjective and too greatly subject to error because pupils do not tell the truth as to their activities, is merely an admission that these are pioneer pieces of work rather than definite and permanent measuring instruments. The writer believes that it is possible to make what he calls "bean-spilling" tests for the attainment of these objectives: tests in which the children, without meaning to, will, as they answer, "spill the beans" by giving away what they actually do. If we know that children exaggerate their regularity in

² Rich, S. G. *Chemistry Tests*. Bloomington, Ill., Public School Pub. Co.

³ Dvorak, A. *General Science Scales*. Bloomington, Ill., Public School Pub. Co.

using the toothbrush, we need to devise questions which those who use this implement regularly will answer in a manner different from that of those who are careless in this health duty. Such a test may not look like or read like a health test; but it will bring out, willy-nilly, the health practices—exactly as in Army alpha the question, “the legs of a Zulu are: 2 4 6 8” brought out, willy-nilly, the range of information about human races to which the subject had been exposed.

In conclusion, the writer would state as strongly and forcibly as possible that it is his firm conviction that the actual application of educational sociology to school work will probably not be made until educational measurements are made in terms of sociology. Unless the results of school work are evaluated in sociologically valid measurements, there is little hope of securing any desirable changes. Furthermore, the type of testing that sociological influence is likely to produce will be far more likely to win support from the unconvinced educators who still resist educational measurement than are the tests on the basis of “what is done is valid” that we now for the most part have. Thus the need for sociology in educational measurements is urgent for both testers and sociologists.

THE SCHOOL AS A NEW TOOL

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AS long ago as February, 1921, Erasmus Hall High School in Brooklyn began the practice of testing every entering class. The practice was then greeted with skepticism by the faculty at large but that original step, undertaken in sheer curiosity, has fostered a growing knowledge of how to discover behavior problems and how to treat them. There is now resident in the school an embryo socializing clinic, the present culmination of this interesting growth. Having secured the test results, what was one to do with them? Immediately, it was evident that a child's score was not the whole story. In a certain proportion of cases, a differential existed between what a child, by measurement, ought to be able to do and what he actually did. We have learned that this differential represents the obstacles to school success and, in a larger sense, to life success. Little by little, we have learned to bring a child's equipment and his success nearer together by the elimination of all the obstacles we can perceive and destroy.

What is successful adjustment? The sole purpose of measuring an intelligence is to make it use its maximum possibilities. It can do so only through the medium of a personality that must, in the high-school period, successfully turn the corner from childhood to maturity. So many tadpoles to be completely metamorphosed in the most turbulent period of living! We used to think that adolescence meant only a physical stretching out and that nature pretty well took care of it; now we know that a complete man is a composite of his ages—mental, moral, social, and emotional, as well as chronological. The task of adjustment is to make these ages march together as well as they can and as soon as they can. We have been so in the habit of thinking of a person's educational period as a preparation for life when, as a matter of fact, it is life—not a dress rehearsal, but the performance itself. In school, the basis of judging a worthy performance is just what it is in life: Considering what he starts with, how well does an individual succeed as a student *and* as a person?

Let us assume that, in the usual churning of events, some 800 students from various elementary schools are left on the doorstep of the

high school to be taken in and "raised." About 68 per cent of them will fall into the groove called "normal" and will proceed to graduation in a more or less colorless, middle-track way. The problems are found, in general, in the upper and lower ends of the distribution surface, and this brings us to a consideration of what constitutes a problem. Some will be overage and not suited to an academic course. They must not be permitted to experience unnecessary failure, but as soon as it is practicable, they must be shunted into pathways where success is for them a possible thing. Truancy is so often a concomitant of this type of failure. Some will be of suitable age for elementary-school graduation, but retarded mentally and unrecognized as such by the elementary school. We shall have to give them slow courses and wait for them to grow up, protecting them, meanwhile, from too great consciousness of defeat and too scant a realization of their own handicaps. Some will have physical disabilities—deafness, glandular imbalances, epilepsy, cardiac difficulties and the like. Some will enter high school with the germs of insanity already insidiously starting—excessive day dreaming, hysteria, dementia præcox, strong suicidal tendencies, paranoid trends, phobias, and so on. Some will have, or will develop, sexual maladjustments—failure to pass through puberty successfully, hangovers of homosexuality, persistence of infantile dependencies, and a host of warped viewpoints due to improper knowledge vicariously acquired. Some will early exhibit tendencies to delinquency—lying, forging, stealing, assault. Some will show almost at once unfortunate character trends—abnormal ill temper, abnormal sullenness, abnormal indifference, all growing out of previous life experience, and coloring new experiences as life generates them. Pierre Janet once said: "We shall never know until we find out." That is the keynote of all this activity, a business of finding out and doing something about it.

The approach to a behavior problem is in marked contrast to the old approach to a discipline "case." Let us take as an example a maladjustment literally created by a school that is so intent on getting over its curriculum as to forget that it is dealing with human beings. A boy over sixteen years of age is brought into the clinic from the juvenile court where a charge of pickpocketing in the subways has been justly preferred against him. A great many people would wag their heads at this and resign themselves to believing that we have here the makings of a bad boy. We can hear their moral judgments:

"At his age he ought to know better," "That shows what kind of parents he has," "That's the way a boy gets started toward Sing Sing," "That's the trouble with these gangs," and so on. If the boy is placed on parole or remanded to a protectory, eventually these morbid predictions of his future do come true, not because the predictions are essentially sound in the first place, but because the reasons for his first act, despite punishment endured, are operative for the succession of acts to come. In this case, however, he is sent to the psychological clinic which undertakes an objective study of him as a person. We find that the boy is the third child in a fraternity of six. The family is in poor circumstances since the father is very erratic in his support of them and the only source of steady income is the mother's janitorial work. From infancy, our boy has had a stammering defect which was regarded as "cute" by his mother and in the early days nothing was ever done about it. He entered school at a normal age, a poorly clad, shy child. He was ridiculed at once for the stammering so that recitation was an agony that increased in intensity during his school life. He ultimately preferred to seem stupid in a silence that cloaked him from the taunts of his fellows and even of the teachers themselves. To add to his difficulties, he was left-handed. He was nevertheless expected to succumb to the goose-step regimen of the public school and to use his right hand in penmanship with the consequence that he was never able to produce anything but an abominable scrawl. His poor handwriting permeated the whole school adjustment; often, he failed in spelling and history because his writing was misunderstood. He has an intelligence quotient of 94 and he should have graduated from elementary school almost on time. Instead, his handicaps retarded and discouraged him so that he was only too glad to secure working papers when he was a little over fifteen and still in the sixth grade. He drifted into the only job that the advertisement suggested to him, office boy, but he was discharged at the end of the first week because he could not answer the telephone. It took him a month to find another place because his speech defect made him a very unprepossessing figure in the presence of a possible employer, and again he lost his job because he did not fit into the niche of ushering the callers to whomever they wished to see in the office. When he was fired a second time, he ran away from home and found a job on a farm in Pennsylvania. For four summer months he was happy, since neither of his handicaps

could seriously interfere with his success. In October, having finished the season, he returned to New York and made several unsuccessful attempts to find a job. Perhaps it was natural that some of the leisure time of job hunting should be spent with a group that had economic misfortunes like his own, and from them, he learned to become a pick-pocket as he might have learned to become a good plumber, through pleasure at his success, in a situation where speech was unnecessary and left-handed dexterity a boon. He found for himself a perfect industrial adaptation in which ideas of morality played no part whatever. After the clinical examination, through his own choice, he was sent to the State College of Agriculture at Farmingdale so that, in a simplified environment, he might learn a means of livelihood compatible with social order. That's all he wanted—a chance to earn his living and maintain his self-respect. When we know his whole story, we stop moralizing and seek a practical remedy for a situation that is as much the fault of society as it is the individual's. We could not *know*, however, except by a genetic study of the past in anyone's life, all that leads up to the moment when he becomes a president, a bridegroom, a suicide, a thief, or an insane person.

The school machinery for handling problem students may be of interest to the reader. The work is done by the Student Welfare Committee, a purposely encouraging title, behind which there lurks a great deal more science and technique than the student is aware of. In addition to the chairman, who is a trained clinical psychologist, there are twenty teacher members who give volunteer service in visiting homes, taking students to clinics, taking certain maladjusted students under the wing, and so on. A group of trained upper-grade students correct and record the group intelligence tests, and carry on the general clerical work of the committee. The chairman was previously an instructor in English, but now has no classes and devotes all her time to the work of investigating the maladjusted. Students may be reported to the committee from any source in school—the disciplinary officers who find students habitually infringing school rules, the grade advisers who want to know why the score does not correlate with the student's achievement, the infirmary, any observing teacher, students who have already been helped and who are passing the benefit on to a friend, and even parents themselves.

Investigation of a case involves careful study, and it may be a very elaborate undertaking. The child is sent for by the chairman, interviewed about his problems, his aims, his aptitudes, and the like, and his general psychological rating is verified by individual tests administered on this occasion. It is worth noting that the child's own viewpoint is the first sought, and frequently there are additional interviews as the accumulated facts reveal the need for them. His record is further enhanced by a complete copy of his scholastic standing and an estimate of his work and character is secured from his *present teachers*. The health record, always a result of examination in the physical training department in the current term, is sent for and is sometimes supplemented by a report from the family physician. In cases where it is necessary, the student is sent to a clinic for a complete physical examination, always with his own consent and that of his parents. The mother or other nearest relative is called to the school to discuss the child's problem and to give the complete family history and background. This may be followed by a visit to the home made by a member of the committee who is instructed as to what to observe and report upon. Usually, long before this complete data is gathered, the nature of the problem is pretty clear. The relief program is decided upon and undertaken. Often it involves long reëducation of the child and his parents, and the findings of the committee must be disseminated among the teachers so that all available sources of coöperation are used. The procedure is a constant process of drawing together a body of data, interpreting it and redistributing the facts so that much more definite objectives will be attained in the life of the child.

The committee coöperates with most of the social service agencies in the city. These include charitable organizations; clinics; hospitals; Big Brother and Big Sister organizations; special vocational guidance institutions like the Bureau of Rehabilitation; lip-reading schools; agencies providing social outlets like the Boy Scouts, Young Men's Christian Associations, et cetera; the juvenile court; and any group interest that might touch upon the life of the student or perhaps of his family.

When this sort of thing can go on in the public schools, it can scarcely be said that we are dealing with wholesale and mechanical education. We have been thinking too long in the channels of mass schooling, mass punishment, mass industry, and mass production. Here

is the school rediscovering an old fundamental truth—that human masses are everywhere composed of individuals about as disparate as wild flowers in a neglected field. The school function is expanding into something more than the indiscriminate pouring of a formalized education down the throats of the submissive young; it is beginning to see that the young rebound in various ways to this process, and that these reboundings have more significance for their adult lives than the parsing of syntax in Caesar. Like all school adventures, this one began selfishly. In the familiar symbols of percentage, the school hoped to show progress in the reduction of failures and that has been one of the outcomes, but in this, as in other enterprises, the by-products of investigation have almost swamped the investigation itself. The school has digressed out of its natural pathways into the lives of these students, their racial heritages, their backgrounds, their physical well-being, their habits and attitudes, their dreams of the future. It has come to see that, whether or not all individuals become adapted to its particular course is relatively unimportant; that they adapt to life in a rapidly changing world is much more to the point. The school is entering into partnership with life as it is lived.

What does this mean for society? Such a program meets with resistance from conservative members of the social group who feel that the school must not be a coddling place for lame ducks, must not be a substitute for the home, the church, and the playground, cannot be all things to all men. We may call this viewpoint conservative because it fails to take account of the fact that city and community life has been revolutionized in one generation. The old institutions, notably the home and the church, are ineffectual in the face of the changes, and society cannot get along without them. No one knows what the future of such institutions is going to be, but, in the period of readjustment through which we are passing, where shall we turn for an agency to tie together the strands of life and give it meaning? The school is the agency in the community occupying a pivotal position, and while it may seem that it is taking on its bent shoulders the burdens of the world, the task must be assigned where it can be centralized and intelligently dealt with. The new program is, in effect, a preventive program like the use of the toothbrush and the early treatment of phthisis. It is calculated to prevent insanity by catching it in incipency and to reduce crime by remodeling the habits out of which asocial behavior emerges.

We have some justification for expecting the school to be interested in mental things—attitudes, ideals, conditioned reflexes, mental hygiene. Actually, these things are no less foreign to school procedure than fire drills, or health inspection, and it is a high water mark in school development that a high school recognizes its community function as social in the best sense of that word.

DIVERGENT VIEWS OF EDUCATIONAL SOCIOLOGY

The President of the National Society

ROSS L. FINNEY

University of Minnesota

IN behalf of the National Society for the Study of Educational Sociology, I congratulate Dr. Payne and those associated with him in the enterprise of launching *THE JOURNAL OF EDUCATIONAL SOCIOLOGY*. It meets a long felt want. I am sure I voice the sentiment of all teachers and students in our field when I bespeak for it the most complete success, and pledge it the utmost coöperation of all.

Pursuant to the editor's invitation to contribute an article for this initial number, relative to the policy of the Society for the current year, I think I can do no better than to submit a circular letter which I sent out some months ago, together with the replies I received to it. The letter was as follows:

The principal problem before the National Society for the Study of Educational Sociology has been to achieve a consensus as to the scope and content of the field. The main result to date has been to reveal a most disconcerting divergence of practice and opinion. As president for the ensuing year I am anxious to see this divergence resolved if possible.

It seems to me that our difficulties arise chiefly from a confusion, not to say conflict, between two fundamentally different conceptions as to what educational sociology is; and that the way out is in recognizing both of these conceptions very clearly, and in finding some way of articulating them.

The one view is that educational sociology should be a *deductive* application of sociology proper to the major problems of education, viz.: aim, content, method, and organization. The other view is that educational sociology should become an independent science by building up *inductively* a body of findings in its own special field; viz., the social aspects of education. The advocates of the first view are impressed with the importance of introducing the sociological standpoint into educational theory; the advocates of the second feel that educational sociology must become a science on its own account if it is to make a contribution. The two camps are not very tolerant of each

other; in some cases they seem to be quite blind to each other's points of view. Hence the confusion. Until they work out a basis of mutual appreciation and division of labor the present "scatteration" is likely to continue.

It seems to me that the way out is through recognition of the fact that in any social science, certainly in education, the general concepts upon which all research must proceed as premises are deductively derived; whereas the research itself is an inductive study of details. Thus, the great major aims of education will be differently conceived by Napoleon than by Jefferson because the one *deduces* them from an autocratic, and the other from a democratic, society. Each will likewise deduce his general notions of content, method, and organization from his concept of aim. This general concept of aim *cannot* be inductively derived, because, as Professor Counts pointed out at the St. Louis meeting last winter, such a concept is normative. But the general concepts once determined, the details must be worked out by inductive research.

Now obviously then, is there room for both views of what educational sociology ought to be. Why should either the head or the hand say to the other: "What need have I of thee?" Each camp is right in what it claims for itself, but wrong in what it ignores or belittles in the other.

Now it is a commonplace that in any attempt at social betterment there are two questions that should always be held in clear distinction. The first is: What is the most important item of progress that is *immediately practicable*; the second: What is the ultimate goal to be achieved. As to the task of educational sociology it seems to me that its most immediate service is to introduce the sociological point of view into education; and that its ultimate goal is to scientize the details of educational practice in its social aspects. The first is to render functional in educational practice what knowledge the social scientists already possess; the second is to accumulate a body of new findings in a special field. The first is the objective of those who would deduce the general concepts of aim, etc., from the sociological knowledge already available; the second is the task of those who would make of educational sociology an independent science. The first is prerequisite to the second if the second is to avoid false starts and futile leads; the

second is an essential follow-up of the first if the first is to prove fruitful in the end. Hence the basis of articulation and coöperation.

May we not all unite, therefore, on a two-sided policy for educational sociology: first, to promote familiarity with sociology upon the part of educators as a basis for the deductive derivation of the general concepts of aim, etc.; and, second, to apply the technique of objective research to detailed social problems in education? And is this not a basis for a division of labor among educational sociologists, with mutual appreciation and encouragement all around, and hence of unity and integration of the field?

To this letter I had the following replies which I submit in alphabetical order:

GEORGE S. COUNTS, *School of Education, University of Chicago*: I have looked over your statement regarding the scope of educational sociology with much interest. I find myself in practically complete agreement with you. While, as you know, I happen myself to be largely interested in the second conception of educational sociology, I am quite willing to admit the wisdom of having the subject include the two divisions which you outline.

PROFESSOR CHARLES A. ELLWOOD, *University of Missouri*: I most heartily and cordially agree with the circular which you are sending to members of the National Society for the Study of Educational Sociology. This has been my position all along, and you are free to quote me as saying so. The general concepts of research in educational sociology must proceed upon premises deductively derived from general sociology, while the research itself may be an inductive study of details. Otherwise, no educational sociology will be achieved. As I see it, the great need for educational sociology, to develop properly at the present time, is to get adequate recognition for its deductive aspect. This means, administratively, that only sociologists should be appointed to chairs in educational sociology. This letter is for any publicity which you may desire to give it.

HENRY W. HOLMES, *Dean, Graduate School of Education, Harvard University*: Let me say that I think your analysis of the problem before the National Society for the Study of Educational Sociology is admirable. If the Society insists on a development of the subject in its own right as a "science," I believe it will be making a great mistake. It seems to me, also, that the scientific efforts of the Society should be very carefully confined to the study of problems that are really social and not merely technical. The problem of the compulsory attendance age seems to me a social problem in most of its aspects; that is a real

problem for educational sociology. Many of the problems I find listed under educational sociology seem to me problems in educational administration or in one of the other technical fields.

DANIEL H. KULP, II, *Teachers College, Columbia University*: I read with much interest your circular which attempts to synthesize apparently diverse views and interests in the National Society for the Study of Educational Sociology. I think it is a much needed document. I congratulate you.

CLYDE B. MOORE, *Rural Education Department, Cornell University*: I have just gone over your circular in which you urge that those interested in educational sociology unite their efforts toward "a two-sided policy." As I see it you have presented the case clearly and I believe your proposition is practical. We are in need of greater unity in our efforts and perhaps more professional altruism. I presume I could differ with you on some of your minor proposals or statements, but fundamentally I agree and appreciate your work in attempting to unify and strengthen the group.

E. GEORGE PAYNE, *School of Education, New York University*: I thank you for your outline of the principal problems before the National Society and before educational sociology. I am in full agreement in your general position.

I believe that education must go back to sociology for its foundation. I do believe, however, that sociology must become scientific in its methods in order to offer very much to either education or educational sociology.

ARTHUR J. TODD, *Northwestern University*: There is much about your analysis of the problem of educational sociology which ought to commend itself to anybody. I agree particularly with your idea of uniting on a two-sided policy for educational sociology.

Of course it seems to me that we must be absolutely sure in our deductive study that we are actually deducing applications to education from established social science. That is, we must be careful not to draw conclusions merely from our judgment of what sociology ought to be. That this has sometimes been done you and I know only too well. Is it not true also that the deductive processes of applying sociological principles to educational problems must constantly be checked up by research methods in the field of education?

My chief uncertainty is on the claim that there is a separate science or may be a separate science known as educational sociology. It seems to me that that is the chief rock of offence and may perhaps account for the great differences of opinion as to inductive or deductive or other methods. Long ago I rejected the offer to teach *business sociology*. I

do not think there is any such thing, nor do I think there is medical sociology. I stand for phrasing these things the other way around and for speaking of the sociology of business, or sociological aspects of public health, sociological jurisprudence, etc. What, for example, is industrial chemistry? Isn't it just the application of the principles of chemistry to certain specific problems of industry? Is educational sociology any more of a separate science than is industrial chemistry or the economics of distribution, or economic botany, or economic geology, or engineering geology, or the philosophy of nature or the psychology of advertising, or personal sociology, or urban sociology? I hope in your hands this problem may be brought somewhat nearer to a solution.

INQUIRY

IRA M. GAST

New York University

Principal, P. S. No. 8, Jersey City

PROFESSOR ZORBAUGH made the statement in his address at the annual meeting of the American Sociological Association that educational sociology provided principles that would aid in school supervision. This statement has been made elsewhere. In what respect is the educational sociologist concerned with supervision?

Dr. F. B. Knight contributes some valuable suggestions in his article entitled "Possibilities of Objective Techniques in Supervision."¹ The objective techniques described deal exclusively with arithmetic, although attention is called to the fact that similar techniques may be applied as well to the various other conventional subjects. The list of tools suggested for use in objective supervision in arithmetic is as follows:

- Tool 1. Weekly inventory drills.
- Tool 2. Teacher's diagnostic record, from Tool 1.
- Tool 3. Teacher's weekly report to supervisor from Tool 2.
- Tool 4. Supervisor's control chart from Tool 3.
- Tool 5. Supervisor's weekly report to teachers from Tool 4.
- Tool 6. Diagnostic tests, used as Tool 4, show need.
- Tool 7. Remedial units, used as Tool 4 and Tool 6, show need.
- Tool 8. The text (course of study), revised through Tool 1 and Tool 6.

Various weekly inventory drills in mixed fundamental operations are to be given to the various grade groups once each week, their chief purpose for the pupil being the maintenance of skills previously learned and for the supervisor the measurement of progress in the production of skill. The statement is made that the use of identical material for both drill and testing is good management because it saves time and allows the frequent gathering of important data.

From the standpoint of educational psychology the suggested possibilities of objective techniques for the supervisor are excellent; but

¹Jour. of Edu. Research, XVI, No. 1, June, 1927.

dangerous pitfalls have been overlooked. The school is an institution of society; and being organized and supported by society, the kind of training provided should be measured also in terms of social standards and needs.

The first pitfall for the supervisor lies in the assumption that the chief function of the school is measured by Tool 1. The primary purpose of the school is to bring about changes in social behavior; and its secondary purpose is achievement socially valuable.² This means that first of all the supervisor should survey the various grades with reference to the attitudes and habits of the pupils, and then at definite intervals determine the extent to which training provided by the school improves those attitudes and habits. According to the secondary purpose of the school, the supervisor should devise drills and standards each element of which will measure useful, acquired knowledge, and determine skills worthy of development.

While the content of the drill and test material submitted for Tool 1 seems for the most part fundamental and useful, a question may be raised as to problem number twenty: "What is the reciprocal of $9/13$?" It is very probable that skill in the use of either ninths or thirteenths is not socially valuable enough to consume any school time at all. Should the supervisor, then, overlook social values in the use of drill and test material, Tool 1 would become invalidated and the entire week's work in arithmetic for both teachers and supervisor would be to no purpose.

In every educational problem there are, then, two fundamental sciences to be called upon to determine educational procedure. Both educational psychology and educational sociology are equally indispensable. The application of educational sociology is fundamental in supervision because of the fact that its concern is primarily with the extent to which the subject matter, the method, the school organization, and measurement can contribute to the improvement of individuals in their community relations.

² See Payne, E. G. and Gebhart, John C. *Method and Measurement of Health Education*, pp. 10-11, issued by the New York Association for Improving the Condition of the Poor, New York, 1926.

BOOK REVIEWS

ABILITY GROUPING IN THE JUNIOR HIGH SCHOOL. By Heber Hinds Ryan and Philippine Crecelius. New York: Harcourt, Brace and Company, 1927

Ability Grouping in the Junior High School is based on the trials and errors and successes of a decade of consistent experimentation in the Ben Blewett Junior High School of St. Louis, Missouri.

Theorists have argued such academic topics as democracy and ability grouping, acceleration *versus* enrichment of experience, "coddling" the less able and less ambitious pupils, and the like. But the teachers of Blewett Junior High School have not been troubled by the question of whether such grouping would succeed; they have day by day and week by week and year by year been a part of its indubitable success; in this school, ability grouping has promoted self-realization and active participation, and greater achievements for dull and bright, for talented and mediocre, and for rich and poor pupils. And in this volume the authors tell of some of its methods and of its achievements.

The book recapitulates the history of grouping, the characteristics of maturing children, the functional nature of intelligencies; it tells what data seem to the authors to be necessary for forming groups; and it explains their recommended procedures, and attempts to justify them. It seems to the reviewer unfortunate that the authors gave so little attention to the group nature of the grouping. Social education through coöperations, competitions, and conflicts has been Blewett's greatest contribution. The emergence in homogenous groups of all levels of socially effective boys and girls with integrated personalities, aggressive, tolerant, happy, eager, adequate boys and girls, ready and able to lead, to "take a licking," and to follow is, after all, the purpose of grouping, as it is the purpose of education, of which grouping is a mere detail.

Many readers may doubt the feasibility or the desirability of the use of so many standards for selecting the members of the various groups of pupils. But none will fail to recognize the value to pupils and teachers of a knowledge of the specific characteristics of the children. And all will appreciate the lucidity of the explanations, the definiteness of the plan proposed, the temperance of the claim for the plan, the con-

structive suggestions regarding methods and contents for the different levels of ability, and the convincing evidences by which the authors support their proposals.

Students of the junior high school owe a great debt of gratitude to the teachers who have carried through this pioneering job and to the authors for telling about it.

PHILIP W. L. Cox, New York University

EDUCATION FOR A CHANGING CIVILIZATION. By W. H. Kilpatrick. New York: The Macmillan Co., 1926

This little book is an extremely valuable contribution to the literature of education. It consists essentially of three lectures which were delivered at Rutgers University in 1926 and is consequently a small volume of 136 pages. In addition to a brief introduction the book includes but three chapters. The first of these is an analysis of the nature and causes of our changing civilization and their bearing upon the problem of popular education. The author holds that the essential factor which makes and explains the modern world and gives to it its differentiating characteristic is the presence of tested thought and its application to the affairs of men; that this changes, not only our ways of living but also our mental outlook; that the body of tested thought is growing ever more rapidly and consequently such changes as we have thus far seen are likely to be small in comparison with those that lie ahead; and finally that the material advance in civilization threatens to outrun our social and moral ability to grapple with the problems so introduced. We must therefore develop a point of view and devise a correlative educational system which shall take adequate account of this fact, otherwise civilization itself seems threatened.

The last two chapters of the book are devoted to the discussion of this problem. The second chapter is entitled "The Demands on Education" and considers the problem of fitting our educational efforts more effectively to the changing needs. Among the demands discussed are: the old education must be considered inadequate; a new emphasis must be placed on science teaching; critical mindedness must be developed along with educational specialization; and the requirements of aggregation, social integration, and democracy must be more successfully met.

The author points out that under the changing conditions "nothing less than world-mindedness will suffice and this calls for a new history

and a new geography and probably a new inclusive social science in place of the old history and the old geography. To quote: "The old way divided humanity and was meant so to do. It fostered nationalistic division and hatreds and was meant so to do, but these attitudes will not fit our children to solve their problems. The rising generation faces a different world, an integrating world. It is the truth that will make them free, and upon the truth we must rely." Attention is also called to the fact that "if we would learn democracy we must then practice it . . . Clearly if the world is to be democratic our people must learn it and education of some sort must teach it somewhere, somehow. One way is for the school to teach it and this means that the school must practise it."

The author's discussion of the decline of authoritarianism and the consequent demands upon education is an important feature of the book. In Chapter III, "The Changing Education," the author discusses the nature and significance of the changes which have already taken place and sets forth his view of the important changes that are still required. He points out that agreement upon the character of our changing civilization and the consequent demands made upon education is much more easily obtained than upon the kind of schools necessary to meet the demands. This is for the reason that interpretation of the former deals with relatively objective matters in which appeal can be made to common observation while in the case of the latter the factor of personal opinion is much more prominent. This chapter sums up in an interesting and profitable way Professor Kilpatrick's well-known point of view in the philosophy of education.

The writer finds himself in essential agreement with practically all of the positions which Professor Kilpatrick has taken and feels that he cannot commend the book too highly. It should be part of the private library of every serious student of education.

JOHN W. WITHERS, New York University

STATE SCHOOL ADMINISTRATION—A TEXTBOOK OF PRINCIPLES. By E. P. Cubberley. Boston: Houghton Mifflin and Co., 1927.

Professor Cubberley's latest book is a masterpiece in the art of writing textbooks. Approximately 25 years ago at Sanford University, Cubberley began offering courses in state school administration. In 1915 in collaboration with Dr. E. C. Elliott, he published a *Source-book in State and County School Administration*. At that time the

authors promised a companion volume dealing with principles. Many of Dr. Cubberley's former students have been waiting eagerly for the fulfillment of this promise. The book is now at hand.

The author conceives of his subject as a means of educational reform, not merely as another subject added to the professor's kit of tools. I presume that he would hold that the subject is justified among university and college offerings on the general ground of education for intelligent citizenship. For a quarter of a century he has been sending out young men and women from Stanford who see here another frontier to be reclaimed from crude and political methods and placed under the control of the professional educator.

The book deals with American state and federal policy in education; the state administrative organization; the scope of the school system as a whole; the financing of education; material environment and equipment of schools; the state and the teacher; and the oversight of the state with reference to the child.

The style is that of Dr. Cubberley in his previous volumes—a clear, concise exposition which leaves little room for improvement in the art of textbook writing. The selected bibliographies at the end of the several chapters give the latest and best references and have been prepared with admirable care and thoroughness. The questions for discussion and topics for investigation make the book an ideal text for the purposes of the college teacher.

While the author has treated certain of these same topics in previous books, the plan of treatment here is that of conceiving each problem from the state point of view, which, together with the amount of new material set forth, makes the volume up-to-date and new. The discussion throughout indicates that the author, by means of an industry that is nothing short of stupendous has kept himself constantly on the firing line of educational progress. The book is the mature achievement of a lifetime of teaching and scholarly pursuit in this field.

The reviewer cannot refrain from expressing the hope, that in the interests of state and nationwide progress in education every institution of higher learning in America could well afford to offer a course in state school administration. It is a subject admirably fitted to tie together and synthesize the students' knowledge of education.

J. O. CREAGER, New York University

INTRODUCTION TO SOCIOLOGY. By *T. R. Williamson*. New York: D. C. Heath Company, 1926

AN INTRODUCTION TO SOCIOLOGY. By *Wilson D. Wallis*. New York: Alfred Knopf, 1927

The changing conception of the field of the social studies in the last decade or two has set many students to the problem of trying to supply the needed material for classroom use. Dr. Williamson's volume is one such attempt. The book is arranged in five parts with five chapters each. The five parts are: The Background to Our Social Life, Social Aspects of the State, Industry in Its Social Relations, Selected Social Problems, and The Road to Progress. The book contains much valuable material, but the treatment of the topics is meager, and not wholly sound, for the author clings to the now passing hypothesis of instincts as the basis of his sociological theory and interpretation.

Wallis too is trying to orient the beginning student or the general reader with a synthetic view of the foundations of contemporary social life and social theory. This book is written upon the college level. The author in trying to give a unified view of social living, organizes the material into six parts: first, The Cultural Perspective; second, A Birdseye View of Social Theory in an attempt to use it in the integration of the following parts of the book; third, The External Factors Influencing Social Life; fourth, The Cultural and Psychological Factors of Group Life; fifth, The Phases and Problems of Modern Society; and sixth, The Trend of Social Development. There are many commendable features of the book; e.g., the organization of a bird's-eye view of the social theorists, the point of view with the emphasis upon the psychological and cultural processes, and with an attempt to get away from the now questionable hypothesis of instincts as the only basis of the social processes. Any author suffers a serious handicap in attempting to give an "overview" of human society within the compass of a single volume even though a small type and compactness of statement be employed. However, the volume may well serve as an introduction to the further study of the social sciences.

BENJAMIN FLOYD STALCUP, New York University

RESEARCHES IN EDUCATIONAL SOCIOLOGY

THE PROBLEMS OF ADJUSTMENT PECULIAR TO THE HIGH I. Q.

In general, clinical studies have tended to single out a typical individuals and study them without reference to normal persons. It is now proposed to take a group of fifty "problem" students from a public high school and compare them, by exploratory method, with a group of fifty normal students in the same school. The one hundred subjects have all been selected from a population of five thousand in a school where it is customary to handle behavior problems through clinical procedure. A common type of problem referred for investigation is the case of a high I. Q. failing in school subjects. Previous experience with such problems tends to indicate that the differential existing between a student's ability and his achievement may be variously explained. Teachers commonly diagnose the difficulty as "laziness," but the clinician finds that the difficulty may arise from glandular imbalances, adverse family circumstances producing emotional stress, twists of personality arising from aberrant ideals and attitudes, incipient psychoses, and so on. A "problem" for our purpose in this study is a student possessing 130 I. Q. or above who has failed two or more subjects in any one term or in a series of terms in his high-school course. The "problem" group is composed of thirty-two boys and eighteen girls, with I. Q.'s ranging from 130 to 162; the normal group is composed of thirty-two boys and eighteen girls, with I. Q.'s ranging from 130 to 157. The birthday ages range from twelve years and seven months to sixteen years and ten months. Complete case studies of each of these individuals will be made so that we shall have as our bases of comparison scholarship records and other relevant school data, such as club memberships, attendance, disciplinary records; health records and physical examinations; psychometric examinations; psychiatric social histories; psychiatric interviews; personality tests and whatever other means of comparison the field provides as the study advances.

AGNES M. CONKLIN

Erasmus Hall

Brooklyn, N. Y.

A PROJECT CURRICULUM

A practical attempt to revise the curriculum of the elementary public schools on the basis of social objectives is the subject of a recent experiment in Public School 80, Brooklyn, N. Y. Assuming the validity of the major objectives of health, accident and fire prevention, worthy home membership, vocational insight and guidance, citizenship, thrift, desirable use of leisure time, ethical character, and command of the fundamental processes as representing fields of experience in which every normal individual is constantly called upon to participate, the experiment attempted to find out whether such a curriculum is feasible in a typical large overcrowded elementary school in New York City.

The steps in the experiment were:

A. A survey of the needs, interests, and educational assets of the children and the community.

B. The adoption of a number of specific objectives under each of the major objectives to meet the conditions revealed in the survey.

C. A survey and evaluation of all the classroom activities set up to attain these specific objectives.

D. A similar survey of the larger school activities under each of the specific objectives.

E. A tabulation and ranking of all the devices reported in the plan books of 63 teachers to attain these objectives.

F. Evidence to show the democratic coöperation of the teachers, the children, and the community in building the project curriculum together, with suggestions for extending the curriculum to cover a larger field. Among the interesting features is a community definition of citizenship involving the school objectives and worked out by the local chamber of commerce. Another is a character report constructed by teachers and pupils in which pupils set their own goals, indicate their progress, and are rated by the parents as well as by teachers. The correlation between teachers' and pupils' judgments of conduct is .78.

The numerous changes in behavior in the pupils and the community seem to justify the conclusion that a project curriculum is feasible in the public elementary schools.

JOHN J. LOFTUS

Public School 80

Brooklyn, N. Y.

NEWS FROM THE FIELD

Associate Professor Ross E. Finney of the University of Minnesota, the chairman of the department of educational sociology of the American Sociological Society, gave courses in the Summer Session of the University of California.

Dr. David Snedden of the department of educational sociology of Teachers College, Columbia University, enjoyed his half year of leave of absence on a journey to the Union of South Africa.

Benjamin Floyd Stalcup, who for the past three years has been an instructor in the department of educational sociology in the School of Education of New York University, received his doctorate in educational sociology in New York University the past summer. He was promoted to an assistant professorship and remains with the department. Dr. Stalcup lectured in teachers' institutes in his former home state of Indiana during a part of the month of August.

Dr. Ira Gast, principal of Public School No. 8 of Jersey City, gave courses in educational sociology in the Summer School of New York University, and is now offering courses in the Institute of Education of the same institution.

Dr. Joseph Noonan, superintendent of schools of Mahony Township, Mahony City, Pennsylvania, gave courses in educational sociology at the Physical Education Summer School of New York University, which was held at Bear Mountain Lake, New York.

Mr. George D. Smith, principal of the Roosevelt Junior High School of Westfield, New Jersey, gave courses in educational sociology in the (New York University) Department of Education at Chautauqua, New York, during the past summer.

Professor Charles C. Peters, of the department of educational sociology of Ohio Wesleyan University, Delaware, Ohio, spent his sabbatical leave teaching in the department of education of Miami University at Coral Gables, Florida.

Superintendent James C. Bay of Easton Public Schools, Easton, Pa., who received his Ph.D. at New York University at the June com-

mencement, gave courses in the summer session of the same institution in the department of educational sociology.

Principal J. C. Rose of the Montclair schools, who is completing his doctorate in educational sociology in the School of Education of New York University, has offered courses for the past two summer sessions of the Oswego State Normal School, Oswego, New York.

The recent convention of the Eastern Commercial Teachers' Association adopted a three-year program of activity of major proportions in the form of getting out and the publishing of the following yearbooks as Basic Studies in Commercial Education; these are:

1928—Foundations of Commercial Education

1929—Curriculum Making in Commercial Education

1930—Administration and Supervision of Commercial Education.

Professor Paul Lomax, head of the department of commercial education of the School of Education of New York University, is president of the executive board getting out and publishing these yearbooks.

The department of educational sociology of the School of Education of New York University has enjoyed a phenomenal growth during the past five years. This department was opened during the year 1922-1923 on the coming of Dr. E. George Payne to the School of Education from the presidency of Harris Teachers College of St. Louis, Mo. Mr. B. F. Stalcup, head of the department of history of the Winona State Teachers College, Winona, Minnesota, joined the department in September, 1924. In September, 1926, Assistant Professor Zorbaugh came to the department from Ohio Wesleyan, Delaware, Ohio. At the beginning of the present school year, Assistant Professor Frederic M. Thrasher, the author of *The Gang*, a seven years' study of the multiplicity of groups in the city of Chicago, came to the department. Professor Thrasher came to New York University from Illinois Wesleyan University, Bloomington, Illinois.

The enrollment in this department has grown as follows:

| | | |
|----------------|------|----------|
| 1922-1923..... | 54 | students |
| 1923-1924..... | 156 | " |
| 1924-1925..... | 543 | " |
| 1925-1926..... | 952 | " |
| 1926-1927..... | 1200 | " |

THE CONTRIBUTORS' PAGE

Agnes Conklin is a psychologist of the Erasmus Hall High School of Brooklyn. She holds a bachelor's and a master's degree from Columbia University. She is now a graduate student in New York University.

John Oscar Creager is professor of college education in the School of Education of New York University. Dr. Creager is an Indianian by birth. Professor Creager received his A.B. at Yale; his M.A. at Harvard; and his doctorate at New York University. Dr. Creager has had many years experience in teacher-training institutions, having been president of such institutions in Wyoming and Arizona, and more recently dean of the School of Education in the University of Arizona.¹

Ross Finney is assistant professor of educational sociology, School of Education, University of Minnesota. Professor Finney is a westerner by birth, training, and experience. His training was received at Upper Iowa University and Northwestern University, from which institution he received his doctorate. For a number of years he was a minister in the Methodist Church in Minnesota. He has held teaching positions at Illinois Wesleyan and North Dakota State Normal, before going to his present location in 1919. He is the author of several books, the most notable of which is *The Causes and Cures of Social Unrest*.

Stephen G. Rich is a native of New York State. His A.B. degree was secured at New York University; his M.A. at Cornell; and his Ph.D. at New York University. Mr. Rich has had considerable experience as teacher and administrator in the schools of West Virginia and the Union of South Africa. He was sometimes supervising principal of the schools at Essex Fells, New Jersey. He gave up teaching for business and is now a representative of one of the larger publishing houses.

¹Since this was written, Dr. Creager has accepted the deanship of the School of Education of the University of Arkansas.

David Snedden is professor of education in Teachers College, Columbia University. Professor Snedden is a native of California. He received his bachelor's degree from Leland Stanford Junior and his A.M. and Ph.D. from Columbia. Professor Snedden has had wide experience as teacher, principal, administrator of schools in California and Massachusetts. He has been in his present position since 1916. He is widely known as lecturer and author on education. He has made notable contributions to the literature of vocational and secondary education, and he has been one of the early pioneers in educational sociology, in which field he has written a number of books. His most recent book is *What is the Matter with American Education?*

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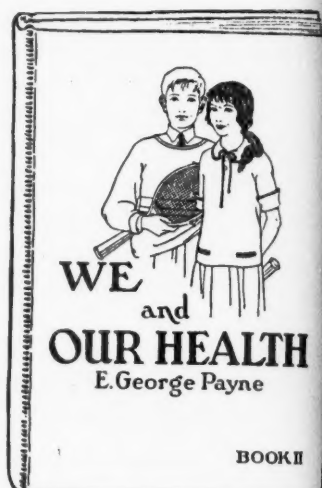
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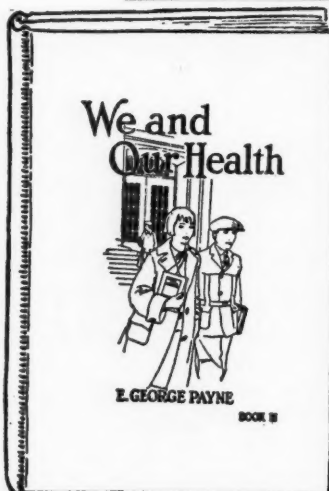


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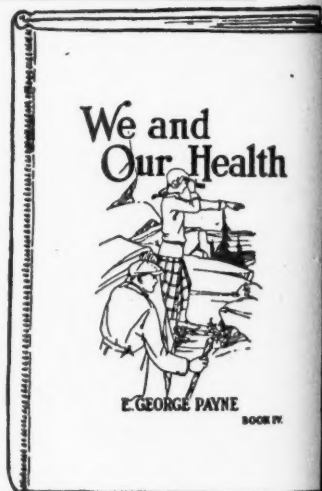


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